Functional Differences between the Amino-Terminal Domains of Estrogen Receptors α and β

FRANCK DELAUNAY,1 KATARINA PETTERSSON, MICHEL TUJAGUE, and JAN-ÅKE GUSTAFSSON

Department of Medical Nutrition (F.D., K.P.) and Center for Biotechnology (M.T., J.-Å.G.), NOVUM, Karolinska Institute, Huddinge, Sweden

Received March 3, 2000; accepted June 6, 2000

This paper is available online at http://www.molpharm.org

ABSTRACT

Human estrogen receptors α (ER α) and β (ER β) are ligand-inducible transcription factors that are highly homologous in their central DNA-binding and carboxyl-terminal ligand-binding domains. In contrast, there is very little conservation between ER α and ER β in the amino-terminal domain. Using different human cell lines, we show that wild-type ER β transcriptional activity is lower or similar to that of ER α , depending on the cell type. Deletion of the amino-terminal domain in both ER subtypes resulted in no or a lower decrease of transcriptional activity of ER β compared with ER α , suggesting that the ER β amino-terminal domain contains a weaker transcriptional activation function-1. Using ER α and ER β deletion mutants, we showed that the amino-terminal transcriptional activity of ER β

maps to amino acids 1-31. Interestingly, this domain contains a six amino-acid motif (amino acids 5–10 in human ER β) that is part of the ER α -activation function-1 region (amino acids 49–54 in human ER α) and highly conserved among all mammalian ER α amino-terminal domains. Despite this similarity between the two ER subtypes, no autonomous and ligand-independent activity of the ER β -amino-terminal domain was observed in yeast and mammalian cells in contrast to ER α . This study provides a molecular basis for the difference in transcriptional activity between ER α and ER β and establishes that ER β contains a structurally and functionally restricted amino-terminal transcriptional activity.

Estrogen receptors (ERs) are ligand-inducible transcription factors that mediate the biological effects of estrogens and antiestrogens. Two ER subtypes, encoded by different genes have been isolated in mammals, $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ (Greene et al., 1986; Kuiper et al., 1996; Tremblay et al., 1997). ER α and ER β belong to the large superfamily of nuclear receptors that includes receptors for steroid and thyroid hormones, retinoic acid, vitamin D₃, fatty acids, eicosanoids, oxysterols, and ecdysone, as well as orphan receptors that have no known ligand (Gronemeyer and Laudet, 1995; Mangelsdorf et al., 1995). Members of this superfamily share a similar modular structure, including a central DNA-binding domain (DBD), a carboxyl-terminal ligand-binding domain (LBD), and a variable amino-terminal domain. Like the other steroid hormone nuclear receptors, ER α and ER β homodimerize on hormone binding, and interact with specific palindromic DNA sequences termed estrogen response elements (EREs) located in target genes (Beato et al., 1995). In addition $ER\alpha$ and ERβ can form heterodimers at ERE-binding sites (Cowley et al., 1997; Pace et al., 1997; Pettersson et al., 1997). Transcription is then stimulated by interaction of the DNAbound receptor with coactivators and recruitment of a preinitiation complex (Xu et al., 1999).

Transcriptional activity of $ER\alpha$ is controlled by two different transcription activation functions (AFs) located in the amino-terminal region (AF-1) and in the carboxyl-terminal region of the LBD (AF-2), respectively (Tora et al., 1989b). The AF-1 transcription activation function is hormone-independent, whereas activity of AF-2 requires the presence of hormone (Tora et al., 1989b). Furthermore, both AF activities are dependent on the promoter context and cell type (Tora et al., 1989b; Berry et al., 1990; Pham et al., 1992; Tzukerman et al., 1994). The AF-1 and AF-2 activities have been shown to synergize in certain cell types and this is thought to occur via the interaction of the corresponding regions with coactivators such as SRC-1 (Tora et al., 1989b; McInerney et al., 1996). In ER α , the AF-1 region also has been shown to mediate the ligand-independent activation of the receptor on phosphorylation (Kato et al., 1995; Bunone et al., 1996). Mutational analysis of human $ER\alpha$ has shown that within the amino-terminal region itself, AF-1 activity maps to several different domains, depending on the cell type and the biocharacter of the ligand (Metzger et al., 1995; McInerney and Katzenellenbogen, 1996). For instance, deletion of the first 101 amino acids resulted in a more pronounced reduc-

ABBREVIATIONS: ER, estrogen receptor; DBD, DNA-binding domain; LBD, ligand-binding domain; ERE, estrogen response element; AF, activation function; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; DME, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's; SRC-1, steroid receptor coactivator-1.

This work was supported by grants from the Swedish Cancer Society and from KaroBio AB (to J.-Å.G.).

¹ Present address: Ecole Normale Supérieure, CNRS UMR 5665, 46 allée d'Italie, Lyon 69364 Cedex, France.

Downloaded from molpharm.aspetjournals.org by guest on December 1, 2012

tion of the AF-1 activity in chicken embryo fibroblasts than in cervix carcinoma HeLa cells and had a moderate effect in yeast cells (Metzger et al., 1995). It also was shown that deletion of the first 87 amino acids had no effect on 17β -estradiol-stimulated transcription in the breast cancer MDA-MB 231 cells, whereas the agonistic response to the antiestrogen trans-hydroxytamoxifen was completely abolished (McInerney and Katzenellenbogen, 1996).

ER β exhibits a high degree of homology with ER α in the DBD region (96% amino acid identity) and in the LBD region (58% amino acid identity), including an identical AF-2 core domain (Kuiper et al., 1996). This structural homology correlates with the findings that both receptors have similar DNA-binding properties (Cowley et al., 1997; Pace et al., 1997; Pettersson et al., 1997), bind 17β -estradiol with similar affinity (Kuiper et al., 1997), and physically interact with the coactivator SRC-1 (Tremblay et al., 1997). In contrast, the amino-terminal domain of ER β is shorter by about 80 amino acids and shows no sequence homology compared with that of ER α . However, this region is well conserved between the rat, mouse, and human ERβ, suggesting an evolutionary constraint and a functional importance. Variability of the aminoterminal region between subtypes or isoforms of receptors for the same hormone is common within the nuclear receptor superfamily and generally results in functional differences. For instance, progesterone receptor isoforms A and B diverge exclusively in this domain and activate transcription from target genes differentially and in a cell-specific manner (Tora et al., 1988; Kastner et al., 1990; Vegeto et al., 1993). Interestingly, it has been reported that the 17β-estradiol stimulated transcriptional response of ER α is higher than that of ER β in some cell types (Cowley et al., 1997; Pettersson et al., 1997; McInerney et al., 1998). Furthermore, no partial agonistic activity of the antiestrogen 4-hydroxytamoxifen could be observed with ER β in contrast to ER α (Cowley et al., 1997; Tremblay et al., 1997). Finally, ER α but not ER β is able to activate transcription from a reporter gene controlled by an AP-1 site in response to 17β -estradiol or diethylstilbestrol (Peach et al., 1997). Collectively, these observations suggest that despite well conserved DBD and LBD, $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ have different transcriptional activation properties that could result at least in part from structurally divergent amino-terminal domains.

In this study, we have compared the transcriptional activities of human $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ by using different human cell lines and promoter configurations. With amino-terminal $ER\beta$ and $ER\alpha$ mutants we show that amino-terminal domains of both ER subtypes exhibit clear functional differences.

Materials and Methods

Reagents. Estradiol-17 β was purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Moxestrol was kindly provided by Stefan Nilsson (KaroBio AB, Huddinge, Sweden). Media, antibiotics, fetal bovine serum, Lipofectamin-Plus, and Lipofectin were purchased from Life Technologies, Inc. (Gaithersburg, MD). Vent DNA polymerase was purchased from New England Biolabs (Beverly, MA). The luciferase detection reagents were purchased from Bio-Orbit Oy (Turku, Finland).

Plasmids Constructs. The luciferase reporter plasmids 2xERE-Tk-Luc and 3xERE-TATA-Luc have been described (McInerney et al., 1996; Pettersson et al., 1997; Kuiper et al., 1998). The expression plasmid pSG5-hER α also has been described (Tora et al., 1989a). The human ER α amino-terminal deletion mutants ER α Δ 63 and

 $ER\alpha\Delta 142$ were constructed by inserting linkers containing a start codon between the EcoRI and NotI (ER $\alpha\Delta63$) or FseI (ER $\alpha\Delta142$) sites of pSG5-hER α . The ER $\alpha\Delta$ 182 mutant was constructed by replacing the EcoRI-HindIII fragment of pSG5-hER α (coding for residues 1-340) with a polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-generated fragment coding for residues 183 to 340 and including a start codon immediately before amino acid 183. The expression plasmid pSG5-hERB was constructed by inserting a SacII (blunted)-BamHI fragment containing the human ER β cDNA (Enmark et al., 1997) into the pSG5 plasmid after digestion with BamHI (blunted) and BglII. The human ER β amino-terminal deletion mutants ER $\beta\Delta$ 31, ER $\beta\Delta$ 46, ER $\beta\Delta67$, and ER $\beta\Delta93$ were constructed by replacement of the EcoRIfragment (coding for residues 1-332) from pSG5-hER β with PCRgenerated fragments containing a start codon and coding for residues 32 to 332, 47 to 332, 68 to 332, and 94 to 332, respectively. The pSG5-mERαΔLBD was constructed by ligating a 275-base pair-long PCR-generated KpnI/EagI fragment (Pettersson et al., 1997) and an EagI/SacI fragment of the plasmid MOR (Hillier et al., 1989) into the *Kpn*I and *Sac*I sites of pSP72. The resulting construct was digested with BamHI and FspI, giving a fragment coding for residues 1 to 246 subsequently introduced into pSG5. The pSG5-mER $\beta\Delta$ LBD was made by subcloning a BamHI fragment from pSP72-mERβ (Pettersson et al., 1997) (coding for residues 1-171) into the BamHI site of pSG5. The yeast expression plasmids were derived from the 2µ plasmid pGBT9 expressing the Gal4 DNA-binding domain (residues 1–147) (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA). Both plasmids pGBT-ERα184 and pGBT-ERβ103 were constructed by insertion of PCR fragments coding, respectively, for the human ER α (residues 1–184) and the human ER β (residues 1–103) into the *Eco*RI-*Bam*HI linearized pGBT9. All PCR generated constructs were verified by sequencing (Cybergene AB).

Electromobility Shift Assays. Wild-type $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ and cognate deletion mutants were in vitro transcribed/translated in the rabbit reticulocyte lysate system (Promega, Madison, WI) with T7 RNA polymerase, according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Six microliters of each lysate was incubated at room temperature for 20 min in binding buffer (15% glycerol, 50 mM KCl, 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.9, 5 mM MgCl, 10 mM dithiothreitol, 5 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 3 mg of pdIdC) containing ~5 fmol of ³²P-labeled consensus ERE. Protein-DNA complexes were separated on a 5% polyacrylamide/0.25× Tris-borate-EDTA gel at ~10 V/cm, followed by drying and autoradiography at -70°C.

Cell Culture and Transfections. The human embryonic kidney HEK293 cells and human hepatoma HepG2 cells were grown in 1:1 mixture of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's (DME) medium and Ham's F-12 medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 I.U./ml penicillin, and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin at 37°C in 5% CO2. The human cervix carcinoma HeLa and 3Y1 rat embryonic fibroblasts cells were grown under the same conditions except that DME medium supplemented with 10 or 5% fetal bovine serum, respectively, was used. Cells were plated at approximately 20% confluence in 24-well multidishes 24 h before transfection. HEK293 and HepG2 cells were transiently transfected overnight with Lipofectin according to the recommendations of the manufacturer and Hela cells were transfected for 3 h with the Lipofectamin-Plus reagent. Transfected DNA included 100 ng of reporter plasmid and 10 ng (HEK293 and HepG2 cells) or 1 ng (HeLa cells) of expression plasmid. After exposure to the DNA/lipid mixture, cells were cultured for 24 h in phenol red-free DME/F-12 medium (HEK293 and HepG2 cells) or DME medium (HeLa and 3Y1 cells) supplemented with 5% charcoal/dextran-treated fetal bovine serum, in the absence or presence of hormone. Transfected cells were washed with phosphate-buffered saline and lysed in 0.1 M Tris-acetate, 2 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol lysis buffer. Luciferase activities were measured with the GenGlow detection kit (Bio-Orbit Oy) and a Lucy I luminometer (Anthos GmbH, Salsburg, Austria). Luciferase values were corrected for variations in protein concentrations and data are ex-

Α

pressed as mean \pm S.D. of at least three independent transfection experiments.

Yeast Transactivation Assay. All details for yeast manipulation can be found in the Clontech Yeast Protocols Handbook. The plasmid pGBT9 or its derivatives pGBT-ERaAF-1 and pGBT-ERbAF-1 were introduced in the yeast reporter strain Y187 (MATa, ura3-52, his3-200, ade2-101, trp1-901, leu2-3, 112, $gal4\Delta$, met^- , $gal80\Delta$, $\mathit{URA3}::\mathit{GAL1}_{\mathrm{UAS}}\text{-}\mathit{GAL1}_{\mathrm{TATA}}\text{-}\mathit{lacZ})$ with a conventional polyethylene glycol/lithium acetate transformation procedure. Recombinant yeasts were selected for growth at 30°C on selective medium lacking tryptophan. Single colonies were grown overnight in 5 ml of liquid medium lacking tryptophan and then in 25 ml of YPD medium. Mid-log phase cultures were harvested and protein extracts were prepared in 150 µl of Z buffer (60 mM Na₂HPO₄, 40 mM NaH₂PO₄, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM MgSO₄, pH 7.0) by cell disruption with 425- to 600-mm acid-washed glass beads (Sigma). β -Galactosidase activity was determined in triplicate in 20 µl of protein extract with the Galacto-Light Plus detection system (Tropix, Bedford, MA) and a Lucy I luminometer (Anthos GmbH). β-Galactosidase values were corrected for variations in protein concentrations and data are expressed as a mean ± S.D. of three independent experiments.

Results

Cell Type-Dependent Differences between Transcriptional Activities of ER α and ER β . The transcriptional activities of the wild-type human ER α and ER β were first compared with the 2xERE-Tk-Luc reporter plasmid. In HEK293 cells, ER β transcriptional activity was approximately 50% of that of ER α when cells were treated with 10 nM 17 β -estradiol (Fig. 1A). The same experiment done in HepG2 cells showed that ER β had a basal and induced trans

HEK293 HepG2 HeLa

125
100
75
100
25
ERα ERβ ERβ530 ERα ERβ ERα ERβ

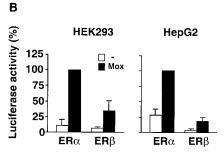


Fig. 1. Cell-type-dependent differential transcriptional activity of ERα and ERβ. A, human HEK293, HepG2, and HeLa cells were transfected with a luciferase reporter gene containing a tandem consensus ERE in front of the thymidine kinase promoter (2xERE-Tk-Luc) and ERα or ERβ expression plasmids as indicated. Cells were treated for 24 h with vehicle (-, \square) or 10 nM 17β-estradiol (E2, \blacksquare). B, HEK293 and HepG2 cells were transfected as in A and were treated for 24 h with vehicle (-, \square) or 10 nM Moxestrol (Mox, \blacksquare). Data are expressed as percentage of ERα-activity in the presence of hormone and represent the mean \pm S.D. of at least three independent experiments.

scriptional activity that was less than 15% of that of ER α (Fig. 1A). In contrast, ER β transcriptional activity was only slightly reduced compared with that of $ER\alpha$ in HeLa cells (Fig. 1A). The ERβ isoform with an extended amino-terminal region, termed ERβ530 (Ogawa et al., 1998), had the same activity as ER β in HEK293 cells (Fig. 1A) and other cell lines (data not shown and see Tremblay et al., 1999), suggesting that this additional region is not critical for transactivation. Furthermore, a recent study showed that rat ovary, uterus, and prostate express the 55-kDa ER β protein (Hiroi et al., 1999). The different transcriptional activity between ER α and ER β in HEK293 and HepG2 cells is unlikely to be due to autosquelching because we used a dose of ERB expression vector (10 ng) resulting in the highest inducibility and which was at least 10 times lower than that required for transcriptional autoinhibition (data not shown). Alternatively, this difference between $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ could be due to metabolism of 17β-estradiol in these particular cell types, resulting in actual intracellular concentrations too low for fully activating ER β . To test this possibility we performed the same transfection experiments in HEK293 and HepG2 cells by using the nonmetabolizable estrogen agonist Moxestrol. Similar results were obtained in HEK293 cells and a slightly higher $ER\beta$ activity was observed in HepG2 cells, suggesting that no significant metabolism of 17β-estradiol occurred in these two cell lines (Fig. 1B). These results indicate that ER β is either as transcripitionally active as $ER\alpha$ (HeLa cells) or less active, depending on the cell type (HEK 293 and HepG2 cells). Because $ER\alpha$ contains a cell-specific amino-terminal transcriptional AF-1, the observed cell type-dependent differential transcriptional activity between ER α and ER β may reflect different functional properties of the highly diverging amino-terminal region of ER β .

Amino-Terminal Deletion Differentially Affects **Transcriptional Activity of ER\alpha and ER\beta.** To determine whether ER α and ER β amino-terminal regions contain a similar transcriptional activity, the entire amino-terminal region was deleted in both receptors and the activity of the resulting truncated receptors (termed $ER\alpha\Delta 182$ and $ER\beta\Delta93$, respectively) was compared with that of the corresponding wild-type receptors in different cell type and promoter contexts. Results show that in HEK293 cells, the $ER\alpha\Delta 182$ mutant retained slightly more activity compared with the ER $\beta\Delta$ 93 mutant when using the 2xERE-Tk promoter (Fig. 2A). In contrast, the ER $\alpha\Delta$ 182 was unable to transactivate the 3xERE-TATA-Luc reporter gene in these cells. The ER $\beta\Delta93$ mutant showed a 50% decrease of the wild-type activity. In HepG2 cells, ER $\alpha\Delta$ 182 was inactive with both promoters, whereas the ER $\beta\Delta93$ retained more than 50% of the wild-type activity (Fig. 2B). In HeLa cells, deletion of the amino-terminal region of ER α decreased its transcriptional activity significantly more when tested with the 3xERE-TATA-Luc reporter gene compared with the 2xERE-Tk-Luc construct (Fig. 2C). Interestingly, the $ER\beta\Delta 93$ mutant showed a substantially higher activity than the wild-type receptor with the 3xERE-TATA-Luc reporter gene, whereas $ER\alpha$ showed a decreased transcriptional activity. These data demonstrate that deletion of the ERβamino-terminal domain has a moderate yet a different cell type- and promoter context-dependent effect on the transcriptional activity compared with $ER\alpha$, suggesting functional differences between the two ERs.

Identification of a Short Amino-Terminal Transcriptional Activation Domain in ERβ. As shown in Fig. 2, both $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ transcriptional activities were decreased in HEK293 cells transfected with the 3xERE-TATA promoter, on deletion of the entire amino-terminal domain of the receptors. These conditions were therefore used to localize the region of ERβ responsible for the amino-terminal transcriptional activity of the receptor and compare it with that of $ER\alpha$. To this end, $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ amino-terminal deletion mutants depicted in Fig. 3A were created. All these mutants showed similar DNA-binding activities when tested in an electromobility shift assay with a consensus ERE as a probe (Fig. 3 B). Deletions of the first 63 amino acids in $ER\alpha$ (mutant $ER\alpha\Delta63$) resulted only in a moderate decrease of approximately 30% of the transcriptional activity (Fig. 3C). Further deletion of ER α up to amino acid 142 resulted in a dramatic decrease of the activity. The ER $\alpha\Delta$ 182 mutant behaved similarly to the $ER\alpha\Delta 142$ mutant. These results with the HEK293 cell line are in agreement with previous findings

that used other cell lines and indicate that the domain encompassing amino acids 50 to 143 is critical for ERα AF-1 activity in most cell types. In contrast to ER α , deletion of the extreme amino-terminal region of ERβ (ERβΔ31 mutant) produced a 60% decrease of the transcriptional activity compared with wild-type receptor (Fig. 3D). When ER\$\beta\$ was deleted beyond amino acid 31 up to amino acid 93, no additional loss of transcriptional activity was observed. These data show that most if not all the amino-terminal transcriptional activity of ER β is attributable to a short domain mapping to the extreme amino terminus of the protein. This situation contrasts with that observed with $ER\alpha$, in which the aminoterminal transcriptional AF-1 extends over 80 to 100 amino acids. Collectively, these comparative data clearly show a different functional organization of the amino-terminal domains of ER α and ER β .

 $ER\beta$ Amino-Terminal Transcripitonal Activity Is Not Autonomous and Ligand-Independent. Fusion of the $ER\alpha$ amino-terminal domain to the heterologous Gal4 DNAbinding domain demonstrated that this domain exhibits a constitutive and ligand-independent transcriptional activity in yeast as previously reported (Metzger et al., 1995). In contrast, the amino-terminal domain of $ER\beta$ did not show

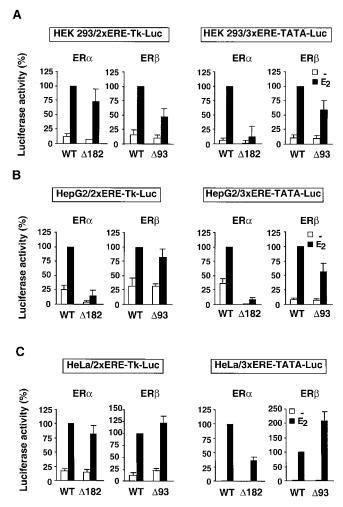


Fig. 2. Differential cell type and promoter context effect of the aminoterminal deletion of ERα and ERβ. HEK293 (A), HepG2 (B), and HeLa (C) cells were transfected with luciferase reporter gene under the control of either a 2xERE-Tk or 3xERE-TATA promoter and wild-type (WT) or mutant $ER\alpha$ or $ER\beta$ expression plasmids as indicated. Cells were treated for 24 h with vehicle $(-, \square)$ or 10 nM 17 β -estradiol (E2, \blacksquare). Data are expressed as percentage of wild-type ER activity in the presence of hormone and represent the mean ± S.D. of at least three independent experiments.

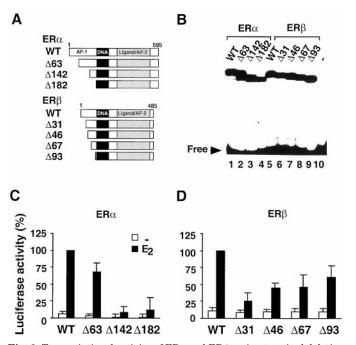


Fig. 3. Transcriptional activity of ER α and ER β amino-terminal deletion mutants in HEK293 cells. The structure (A) of the deletion mutants derived from wild-type ER α and ER β is shown. The domains corresponding to the AF-1 and AF-2 in ER α , DBD, and LBD are indicated. The ER α and ER β -deletion mutant nomenclature refers to the number of amino acids deleted from the amino-terminus. For analysis of the DNA-binding activity (B) of the ER mutants, wild-type ER α (lane 1) and ER β (lane 5) and the various corresponding deletion mutants (lanes 2-4 and lanes 6–9, respectively) or unprogrammed lysate (lane 10) were in vitro translated and incubated with $^{\rm 32}P\text{-labeled}$ consensus ERE, and DNA-protein complexes were separated on a nondenaturing polyacrylamide gel. Cells were transfected with expression plasmid for wild-type or mutant $ER\alpha$ (C) and the 3xERE-TATA-Luc reporter plasmid. Cells were treated with vehicle $(-, \square)$ or 10 nM 17 β -estradiol $(E2, \blacksquare)$ for 24 h and assayed for luciferase activity. D, transfection conditions were as in C, except that expression plasmids for wild-type or mutant ER β were used. Data are expressed as percentage of ER α or ER β wild-type activity in the presence of hormone and represent the mean \pm S.D. of at least three independent experiments.

any activity in this transactivation assay, suggesting that the $ER\beta$ amino-terminal domain cannot function in an autonomous manner (Fig. 4). To further investigate this lack of constitutive activity in $ER\beta$ and exclude a possible yeast inhibitory effect, we used 3Y1 rat embryonic fibroblasts in which $ER\alpha$ exhibits a significant ligand-independent AF-1 activity. These cells were cotransfected with expression plasmids coding for $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ mutants with no ligand-binding domain and the 3xERE-TATA-Luc reporter gene. In these cells, the $ER\alpha$ mutant showed a ligand-independent constitutive activity, whereas the $ER\beta$ mutant had no activity. Collectively, these data show that in contrast to $ER\alpha$, $ER\beta$ has no autonomous and ligand-independent amino-terminal transcriptional activity.

Discussion

Estrogen receptors α and β are highly homologous in their DNA- and ligand-binding domains. Likewise, functions associated with these structural domains such as ERE binding, dimerization, and affinity to the natural estrogen 17β -estradiol are very similar for ER α and ER β (Cowley et al., 1997; Kuiper et al., 1997; Pace et al., 1997; Pettersson et al., 1997). Yet, there is accumulating evidence that the two receptors function differently. These differences include, for instance, lower transcriptional activity of ER β in several cell lines (Fig. 1) (Vegeto et al., 1993; Cowley et al., 1997), higher binding affinity of ER β for the phytoestrogens coumestrol and genistein (Kuiper et al., 1997), absence of agonistic activity of the antiestrogen 4-hydroxytamoxifen on ERB through ERE sites (Cowley et al., 1997; Tremblay et al., 1997), opposite signaling between ER α and ER β at AP-1 sites with 17β -estradiol and raloxifene (Peach et al., 1997), and binding and activation of SF1 response elements by $ER\alpha$

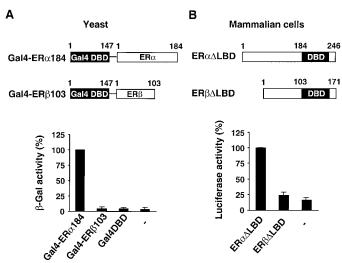


Fig. 4. ER β has no autonomous and ligand-independent amino-terminal transcriptional activity. A, Gal4 DBD was fused to the amino-terminal domains of ER α and ER β , respectively, and the resulting chimeric proteins were introduced into the yeast reporter strain Y187. β -Galactosidase activities were expressed as percentage of that obtained with the Gal4-ER α construct. Data represent mean \pm S.D. of three independent experiments. B, LBD was deleted from ER α and ER β to create the ER α DLBD and ER β DLBD deletion mutant, respectively. The mutant receptors were transfected in 3Y1 rat embryonic fibroblasts together with the 3xERE-Luc reporter plasmid and luciferase activity was measured 24 h later. Data are expressed as percentage of ER α -activity in the presence of hormone and represent the mean \pm S.D. of at least three independent experiments.

but not ER β (Vanacker et al., 1999). The structural determinants and molecular mechanisms for such differences are not understood, but the poor conservation of the amino-terminal region between ER α and ER β may play a significant role by, for instance, providing the receptors with different AF-1 domains.

Using amino-terminal deletions of $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ in various cell types and promoter configurations, we show specific transcriptional activity properties for the two ER subtypes. Recently, McInerney et al. (1998) showed that substitution of the amino-terminal region of $ER\beta$ by that of $ER\alpha$ could confer to the resulting chimeric receptor an improved transcriptional activity in response to estradiol in some cell types and an agonistic response to antiestrogens that contrasts to wild-type $ER\beta$ (McInerney et al., 1998). These data together suggest that the amino-terminal region plays an important role in the control of the transcriptional activity specificity exhibited by both ER subtypes.

In this study, we show that in cell types and promoter contexts under which ERB exhibits an amino-terminal transcriptional activity, this activity is significantly weaker than that of $ER\alpha$. This observation correlates with the finding that the region responsible for the amino-terminal activity in ER β is restricted to a short domain of 30 amino acids, whereas it extends over most of the amino-terminal region in $ER\alpha$. Interestingly, this domain contains a six amino-acid motif that is highly conserved between all mammalian $ER\alpha$ s and $ER\beta$ s and in $ER\alpha$, this motif is part of the conserved box 1 that was defined as one of the subdomains controlling AF-1 activity (Fig. 5) (White et al., 1987; Metzger et al., 1995). Thus, despite a poor sequence homology and important functional differences between ER α and ER β amino-terminal regions, the presence of this conserved motif suggests that it plays a role in the control of the aminoterminal transcriptional activity of both ER subtypes. However, deletion of residues 2 to 63 in $ER\alpha$ ($\Delta 63ER\alpha$ mutant), thus excluding this motif, had a moderate effect, suggesting that this motif is not a major activating domain. This is consistent with the weak ER β amino-terminal transcriptional activity (see below). In an evolutionary perspective, this observation also implies that this motif was present in the nonduplicated ancestral ER gene in early vertebrates. The differential loss of transcriptional activity on deletion of the amino-terminal domain of ER α and ER β suggests that their interactions with transcriptional intermediary factors are qualitatively and quantitatively differ-

Consensus		P	A	v	x	N	Y
Human $ER\alpha$	(49)	P	A	v	Y	N	Y
Mouse $ER\alpha$	(49)	-	Т	-	F	***	_
Rat $ER\alpha$	(49)	-	-	-	F	_	_
Camel ER α	(38)	-	-	_	-	_	_
Sheep ER $lpha$	(49)	_	-	_	-	-	-
Human ERβ	(6)	P	A	v	М	N	Y
Mouse ER β	(6)	-		-	-	-	_
Rat ERβ	(6)	_	_	_		_	_

Fig. 5. Mammalian $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ amino-terminal domains contain a highly conserved motif. Localization and alignment of the conserved motif found in the AF-1 domain of $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ from various mammalian species. Position of the proline residue is indicated in parentheses. Accession number for the ER sequences used are human $ER\alpha$, X03635; mouse $ER\alpha$, M38651; rat $ER\alpha$, Y00102; camel $ER\alpha$, X98107; sheep $ER\alpha$, Z49257; human $ER\beta$, X99101; mouse $ER\beta$, AJ000220; and rat $ER\beta$, U57439.

Downloaded from molpharm.aspetjournals.org by guest on December 1, 2012

ent. Moreover, the opposite effect of the amino-terminal deletion in $ER\alpha$ (loss of activity) and $ER\beta$ (increased activity) observed in HeLa cells transfected with the 3xERE-TATA-luc reporter gene (Fig. 2C) indicates that the $ER\alpha$ and $ER\beta$ aminoterminal regions are targets for different cofactors, and suggests that $ER\beta$ is a putative target for corepressors. This possibility also is supported by recent data showing that GRIP1, a coactivator member of the p160 transcriptional intermediary factor group directly interacts with the $ER\alpha$ amino-terminal domain and potentiates 4-hydroxytamoxifen transcriptional activity, whereas no significant interaction was detected with $ER\beta$ (Webb et al., 1998).

Although our deletion analysis identified the extreme amino-terminus of ER β as a transcriptional activation domain in the context of the wild-type receptor, we found surprisingly that the ER\$\beta\$ amino-terminal domain was not transcriptionally autonomous when fused to the heterologous yeast Gal4 DBD, in contrast to that of $ER\alpha$ (Metzger et al., 1995) (Fig. 4). This may explain why the amino-terminal transcriptional activity of ER β is generally weaker than that of ER α . This finding also suggests that synergism between the amino- and carboxyl-terminal regions is required irrespective of the cell type for ER β -transcriptional activation, whereas it is cell type-dependent for ER α . Nevertheless, the lack of ligandindependent autonomous activity of the ERB AF-1 domain does not rule out the possibility for such an activity under certain physiological conditions. For instance, it was recently shown that phosphorylation of the ERβ-amino-terminal domain resulted in the recruitment of the coactivator SRC-1 and subsequent ligand-independent transcriptional activation (Tremblay et al., 1999).

Interestingly, in HeLa cells transfected with the 2xERE-Tk-Luc construct, a condition showing very low ligand-independent ER α AF-1 activity (Berry et al., 1990), ER β transcriptional activation potency was only slightly reduced compared with that of ER α (Fig. 1). This supports the idea that in cell types and promoter contexts that require an AF-1 for full ER transcriptional activity, the lower transactivation capacity of ER β results from a weaker amino-terminal transcriptional activity compared with ER α . This is also in agreement with the finding that 4-hydroxytamoxifen acts only as a pure antagonist through ER β , whereas it is an agonist for ER α on a promoter from which transcription can be regulated by the ER α AF-1 on its own (Berry et al., 1990; McInerney and Katzenellenbogen, 1996).

Collectively, our comparative data show that $ER\alpha$ - and $ER\beta$ -amino-terminal domains are functionally different and establish that $ER\beta$ does not contain a typical AF-1 domain in contrast to $ER\alpha$. This study provides a molecular basis for at least some of the differential transcriptional activities between both ER subtypes.

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Bart van der Burg for the gift of the 3xERE-TATA- Luc reporter plasmid.

References

- Beato M, Herrlich P and Schütz G (1995) Steroid hormone receptors: Many actors in search of a plot. *Cell* 83:851–857.
- Berry M, Metzger D and Chambon P (1990) Role of the two activating domains of the cestrogen receptor in the cell-type and promoter-context dependent agonistic activity of the anti-cestrogen 4-hydroxytamoxifen. *EMBO J* 9:2811–2818.
- Bunone G, Briand P-A, Miksicek RJ and Picard D (1996) Activation of the unli-

- ganded estrogen receptor by EGF involves the MAP kinase pathway and direct phosphorylation. $EMBO\ J$ 15:2174–2183.
- Cowley SM, Hoare S, Mosselman S and Parker MG (1997) Estrogen receptors α and β form heterodimers on DNA. J Biol Chem 272:19858–19862.
- Enmark E, Pelto-Huikko M, Grandien K, Lagercrantz S, Lagercrantz J, Fried G, Nordenskjöld M and Gustafsson J-Å (1997) Human estrogen receptor β -gene structure, chromosomal localization, and expression pattern. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 82:4258–4265.
- Greene GL, Gilna P, Waterfield M, Baker A, Hort Y and Shine J (1986) Sequence and expression of human estrogen receptor complementary DNA. *Science (Wash DC)* **231**:1150–1154.
- Gronemeyer H and Laudet V (1995) Transcription factors 3: Nuclear receptors. Protein Profile 2:1167-1322.
- Hillier S, Saunders P, White R and Parker M (1989) Oestrogen receptor mRNA and a related RNA transcript in mouse ovaries. J Mol Endocrinol 2:39–45.
- Hiroi H, Inoue S, Watanabe T, Goto W, Orimo A, Momoeda M, Tsutsumi O, Taketani Y and Muramatsu M (1999) Differential immunolocalization of estrogen receptor a and b in rat ovary and uterus. J Mol Endocrinol 22:37–44.
- Kastner P, Krust A, Turcotte B, Stroop U, Tora L, Gronemeyer H and Chambon P (1990) Two distinct estrogen-regulated promoters generate transcripts encoding the two functionally different human progesterone receptor forms A and B. EMBO J 9:1603-1614
- Kato S, Endoh H, Masuhiro Y, Kitamoto T, Uchiyama S, Sasaki H, Masushige S, Gotoh Y, Nishida E, Kawashima H, Metzger D and Chambon P (1995) Activation of the estrogen receptor through phosphorylation by mitogen-activated protein kinase. Science (Wash DC) 270:1491-1494.
- Kuiper G, Lemmen J, Carlsson B, Corton J, Safe S, van der Saag P, van der Burg B and Gustafsson J-Å (1998) Interaction of estrogenic chemicals and phytoestrogens with estrogen receptor beta. *Endocrinology* 10:4252–4263.
- Kuiper GJM, Carlsson B, Grandien K, Enmark E, Häggblad J, Nilsson S and Gustafsson J-Å (1997) Comparison of the ligand binding specificity and transcript tissue distribution of estrogen receptor α and β . Endocrinology 138:863–870.
- Kuiper GJM, Enmark E, Pelto-huikko M, Nilsson S and Gustafsson J-Å (1996) Cloning of a novel estrogen receptor expressed in rat prostate and ovary. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 93:5925–5930.
- Mangelsdorf DJ, Thummel C, Beato M, Herrlich P, Schütz G, Blumberg B, Kastner P, Mark M, Chambon P and Evans RM (1995) The nuclear receptor superfamily: The second decade. *Cell* 83:835–839.
- McInerney E, Tsai M-J, O'Malley BW and Katzenellenbogen BS (1996) Analysis of estrogen receptor transcriptional enhancement by a nuclear hormone receptor coactivator. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 93:10069-10073.
- McInerney E, Weis K, Sun J, Mosselman S and Katzenellenbogen B (1998) Transcriptional activation by the human estrogen receptor subtype β (ER β) studied with ER α and ER β receptor chimeras. Endocrinology 139:4513–4522.
- McInerney EM and Katzenellenbogen BS (1996) Different regions in activation function-1 of the human estrogen receptor required for antiestrogen- and estradiol-dependent transcription activation. *J Biol Chem* **271**:24172–24178.
- Metzger D, Ali S, Bornert JM and Chambon P (1995) Characterization of the amino-terminal transcriptional activation function of the human estrogen receptor in animal and yeast cells. J Biol Chem 270:9535–9542.
- Ogawa S, Inoue S, Watanabe T, Hiroi H, Orimo A, Hosoi T, Ouchi Y and Muramatsu M (1998) The complete primary structure of human estrogen receptor β (hER β) and its heterodimerization with ER α in vivo and in vitro. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 243:122–126.
- Pace P, Taylor J, Suntharalingam S, Coombes RC and Ali S (1997) Human estrogen receptor β binds DNA in a manner similar to and dimerizes with estrogen receptor α . J Biol Chem **272**:25832–25838.
- Peach K, Webb P, Kuiper GGJM, Nilsson S, Gustafsson J-Å, Kushner PJ, and Scanlan TS (1997) Differential ligand activation of estrogen receptor ER α and ER β at AP1 sites. Science (Wash DC) 277:1508–1510.
- Pettersson K, Grandien K, Kuiper GGJM and Gustafsson J.Å (1997) Mouse estrogen receptor β forms estrogen response element-binding heterodimers with estrogen receptor α . Mol Endocrinol 11:1486–1496.
- Pham TA, Hwung YP, Santiso-Mere D, McDonnell DP and BW OM (1992) Ligand-dependent and -independent function of the transactivation regions of the human estrogen receptor in yeast. *Mol Endocrinol* **6:**1043–1050.
- Tora L, Gronemeyer H, Turcotte B, Gaub MP and Chambon P (1988) The N-terminal region of the chicken progesterone receptor specifies target gene activation. *Nature (Lond)* 333:185–188.
- Tora L, Mullick A, Metzger D, Ponglikitmongkol M, Park I and Chambon P (1989a)

 The cloned human oestrogen receptor contains a mutation which alter its hormone binding properties. *EMBO J* 7:1981–1986.
- Tora L, White J, Brou C, Tasset D, Webster N, Scheer E and Chambon P (1989b) The human estrogen receptor has two independent nonacidic transcriptional activation functions. Cell 59:477–487.
- Tremblay A, Tremblay GB, Labrie F and Giguère V (1999) Ligand-independent recruitment of SRC-1 to estrogen receptor β through phosphorylation of activation function AF-1. *Mol Cell* **3:**513–519.
- Tremblay GB, Tremblay A, Copeland NG, Gilbert DJ, Jenkins NA, Labrie F and Giguère V (1997) Cloning, chromosomal localization, and functional analysis of the murine estrogen receptor β. Mol Endocrinol 11:353–365.
- Tzukerman MT, Esty A, Santiso-Mere D, Danielan P, Parker MG, Stein R, Pike JW and McDonnel DP (1994) Human estrogen receptor transactivational capacity is determined by both cellular and promoter context and mediated by two functionally distinct intramolecular regions. *Mol Endocrinol* 8:21–30.
- Vanacker J, Pettersson K, Gustafsson J-Å, and Laudet V (1999) Transcriptional targets shared by estrogen receptor-related receptors (ERRs) and estrogen receptor (ER) alpha, but not by ER β . EMBO J 18:4270–7279.
- Vegeto E, Shahbaz MM, Wen DX, Goldman ME, BW OM and McDonnell DP (1993)

Human progesterone receptor A form is a cell- and promoter-specific repressor of human progesterone receptor B function. Mol Endocrinol 7:1244-1255.

Webb P, Nguyen P, Shinsako J, Anderson C, Feng W, Nguyen M, Chen D, Huang S, Subramanian S, McKinerney E, Katzenellenbogen B, Stallcup M and Kushner P (1998) Estrogen receptor activation function 1 works by binding p160 coactivator proteins. Mol Endocrinol 12:1605–1618.
White R, Lees JA, Needham M, Ham J and Parker MG (1987) Structural organiza-

tion and expression of the mouse estrogen receptor. $Mol\ Endocrinol\ 1:735-744.$

Xu L, Glass C and Rosenfeld M (1999) Coactivator and corepressor complexes in nuclear receptor function. Curr Opin Genet Dev 2:140-147.

 $\textbf{Send reprint requests to:} \ \, \textbf{Jan-Åke Gustafsson, Department of Medical}$ Nutrition, NOVUM, Karolinska Institute, S-141 86 Huddinge, Sweden. Email: jan-ake.gustafsson@csb.ki.se